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ABSTRACT

The first of the four papers in this symposium, "Towards a Meaningful HRD [Human Resource Development] Function in the Post-Command Economies of Central and Eastern Europe" (Devi Jankowicz), examines the existing knowledge-base among managers who are to be trained as HRD practitioners and suggests that efforts may be constrained by concepts of knowledge transfer and resistance to change which are flawed. "The Impact of Human Resource Development on the Winter War between Finland and the Soviet Union, 1939-1940" (John A. Niemi, Ville Nurmi) examines HRD activities that had an impact on the performance of the Finnish army in the Winter War with the Soviet Union, based on a model that accounts for the various HRD elements as well as for outside forces that affected the conduct of the war. "Designing Effective Training Program for International Transfer" (Doo H. Lim), used a Korean organization to examine the effect of training design on the transfer of HRD training for a global company. Analysis of 10 case studies of application of a conceptual model of international transfer of training revealed several reasons for high or low learning and transfer of training, including the need to improve the quality of training design and delivery, the use of diverse instructional methods and stimuli, and the instructor's sensitivity to cultural differences. "Cross Cultural Effectiveness" (Carey C. Coghill) describes cross-cultural conflict situations and illuminates factors that may be affecting cross-cultural transition and effectiveness. (KC)

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11 **International HRD Perspectives**

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Towards a Meaningful HRD Function in the Post-Command Economies of Central and Eastern Europe

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Development of the HRD function in the post-command economies of central Europe may benefit the western agents involved in this cross-cultural collaboration as much as the client companies who utilise western expertise. An examination of the existing knowledge-base among managers whom we seek to train as HRD practitioners suggests that our efforts may be constrained by concepts of knowledge transfer, and resistance to change, which are flawed. I suggest some alternative perspectives.

Keywords: Central & Eastern Europe, Resistance to Change, Knowledge Transfer

Human Resource Development is one of several functions which is regarded as underdeveloped, if not absent, among the organizations of central and eastern Europe, as noted by a variety of commentators both before the changes which took place in 1989 (see e.g. Lane 1985; Obloj 1986) and after (Eberwein & Tholen 1997; Jankowicz 1991; Kozminski 1996). Accordingly, the extensive efforts of the last ten years to transfer knowledge and expertise into the post-command economies have generally included material on the purpose, rationale, procedures and techniques associated with the development of human resources, whether conceptualised as "training" or as "HRD", and attempts to aid and/or inform efforts to reshape individual organisations have included a consideration of the content and structural implications at both individual (Lee 1996), organisational (Strzyzewska Kaminska & Wawrzyniak 1996), and institutional (Aguilar 1996), level.

This is a complicated endeavour. There are obvious constraints on outcomes; to take just one example, as when western joint venture partners retain control over human resourcing policy so that the indigenous partner's involvement is limited to simple personnel administration and training provision (Kozminski 1993). In such circumstances, indigenous staff in the joint venture company have little opportunity to contribute to either function at the strategic level, and little exposure to contemporary ideas about organisational and staff development in the wider sense- no HRM or HRD is possible– so that the knowledge that is transferred from the market economy to the post-command economy, may be partial and limited after even the best designed programme.

However, my intention in examining the constraints involved is to focus less on outcomes, and more on the process of transfer itself. My objective is to examine our definitions of knowledge transfer, and the way we construe success in that endeavour, with particular reference to the concept of 'resistance to change'. I believe that a number of untenable assumptions are typically involved, and that there is little point in worrying about difficulties at the outcome level until we have developed more appropriate understandings of the process itself.

The Process of Knowledge Transfer: Two Models

There are two alternative ways of thinking about the process involved.

Export Sales

The simplest approach to knowledge transfer is to view it as *technology* transfer; as a process in which the donor and the recipient share the same conceptual background and assumptions, so that the goods or services to be transferred can be put to use by the recipient after appropriate instructions have been clearly conveyed. Knowledge is seen as a *commodity*: something which comes in discrete units, something to be transported, plugged in and utilised. If the transfer occurs across linguistic boundaries, then the instructions have to be translated with professional competence, as if we were selling a piece of machinery and had to stick foreign-language labels on the controls while remembering to include a well-translated instruction manual as part of the package being despatched.

The metaphor is one of 'export sales': the recipient stands in the role of consumer and is persuaded that s/he needs the product, the donor in the role of producer or salesperson; and both parties are seen as sharing common assumptions about the nature and form of the transaction involved.

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New Product Development

A rather less crude approach is to see knowledge transfer as a process of *information* transfer, a process by which the donor removes uncertainty in the recipient. Knowledge is seen as an *abstraction*: concepts, ideas, principles, guidelines, theories, and other immaterial entities. If the transfer occurs across linguistic boundaries, then, again, the material has to be translated, and this is seen as unproblematic: it is assumed that each of the two languages encode phenomena in the same way, so that the abstractions expressed in the language used by the transmitter can be reproduced identically by the receiver. Misunderstandings by the receiver are regarded as a form of noise during transmission: "inaccurate translations", or simple misunderstandings between the transmitter and the receiver, resolvable by a repetition of the information "in other words" within the same encoding system.

However, this sort of account is tendentiously over-simplified. A more complex version of the information transfer process is required, in which it is recognised that different natural languages encode phenomena differently: they are in themselves distinct coding systems. Every language teacher is aware of the importance of idiom in conveying meaning- in fact, such linguistic differences in the way in which phenomena are represented run very deep. The professionalism of the interpreter stems from his or her ability to resolve inconsistencies in mapping the meaning encoded in one language onto the meanings that it is possible to encode in another: Millman & Randlesome (1993); Gilbert (in press); Limaye & Victor (1995). Because they determine the very boundaries of the events which different observers perceive in the phenomenal flow, the different grammars, metaphors, idioms and etymologies of different natural languages slice up reality differently (Jankowicz, 1996)– two perceivers using different languages actually experience different events– and, as Czarniawska (1997: 480) puts it in presenting Latour's account of the kind of translation which this mapping requires (Latour 1986), 'the dictionary itself becomes translated': i.e., the meanings differ, depending on the code-book being used to represent a particular encoding.

Even the basic vocabularies of two languages encodes meanings differently. For example, the word 'manager' is capable of expressing a great variety of meanings in English, while the nearest Slavonic terms convey only the more directive and controlling shades of meaning, for a variety of cultural and historical reasons (Jankowicz, 1994; Vlachoutsicos, 1990; Vlachoutsicos & Lawrence, 1990); Significantly, the Polish word for 'training' includes vocational and instructional phenomena in its encoding, but does not readily encode the management and organisational development shades of meaning. Events during the period of the Polish command economy made the notion of 'personal career development', a neutral enough phrase in the English language, extremely problematic, the concept being tainted by a history of self-promotion within the Communist Party career structure at the expense of one's co-workers and the translation of this phrase into Polish encodes an entirely different reality to the one encoded by the original English phrase.

It follows that, in understanding the same experienced phenomenon by means of two different languages, the meaning encoded by one party may be subtly different to the reality encoded by the other. When they interact in transferring knowledge about that phenomenon, the transfer will necessarily involve the collaborative creation of a new, mutually comprehensible meaning, rather than a simple directional "movement of information" between a transmitter and a receiver, as the simple form of the information transfer model suggests.

The metaphor involved is one of 'new product development', rather than 'export sales': the status of the two parties is no longer that of donor and recipient, but of potentially co-equal collaborators; and they interact in developing something new from the material which each contributes. The result might indeed be that the indigenous party gains information, in the sense of having uncertainty reduced; but, equally, the knowledge of the change agent is similarly open to amendment as a result of the dialectic in which both have engaged. As a business practitioner, (McNeill, 1991) has emphasised, misunderstandings by the indigenous party are not a simple matter of unsuccessful transmission, but of unsuccessful knowledge creation. He advocates the use of two interpreters, the task of the second (who must necessarily be informed of the purposes of both parties, not simply of their utterances) being to comment on the success, or otherwise, of the language translation, and the overall dialogue, of all of the parties involved in the attempt at knowledge transfer.

Resistance to Change

If we are to acknowledge cultural differences appropriately and take cross-cultural collaboration seriously, it follows that we need to use the second metaphor rather than the first. The effectiveness of our attempts to transfer knowledge about HRD hinges on our understanding of the process involved, on the sophistication with which we address the difficulties in mutual knowledge creation which we encounter and, in particular, on the way in which we use the concept of 'resistance to change'. If we accept that cross-cultural knowledge transfer is indeed a dialectic in which meanings must be collaboratively created, then the terms of the dialogue are worth examining.

There is clearly an issue of power to be considered. In the 'export sales' metaphor, though the issue of power differentials is, in principle, an open one, in practice the relationship between donor and consumer is frequently resolved to the consumer's disadvantage, as Bourdieu has pointed out:

> 'Misunderstandings, borrowings removed from their context and reinterpreted, admiring initiation and disdainful aloofness– these are all signs familiar to specialists on the situations that arise when cultures meetÉ any action for the handing on of a culture necessarily implies an affirmation of the value of the culture imparted (and, correlatively, an implicit or explicit depreciation of other possible cultures).' Bourdieu (1971: 198).

In the 'new product development' metaphor, however, the potential equality of both parties is frequently prejudged: the change agent is legitimised as the party which has the 'correct' or 'appropriate' knowledge, and the indigenous party as the one whose uncertainty is to be resolved by the information involved. Thus, for example, Holden & Cooper (1994: 516) quote Aslund & Layard (1993) as accusing Russian managers of an extraordinary contempt for trade and business, coupled with a hubristic belief in their own business expertise, and a palpable ignorance of other countries; while perpetuating the problem themselves, by seeing it as one of language *deficiency* with respect to western experience, (Holden and Cooper 1994: 515), rather than as a matter of differences in what the two languages, English and Russian, are each capable of encoding in a form that would make for unproblematic translation.

Bourdieu is clear that he means 'depreciation', and not *'deprecation'*: his suggestion is that there is a mechanism operating, irrespective of the goodwill or intentions of the individual change agent, which has the effect of devaluing the currency of discourse between the two parties concerned. We can gain a better understanding of this mechanism involved when we examine the concept of 'resistance to change'.

Any basic text will provide an example; here, the popular undergraduate O.B. text, Hellriegel et al. (1995), instances the kind of presentation on which the western manager involved in a joint venture with a central European partner is likely to base his or her thinking about how knowledge can be transferred. The model expresses 'resistance to change' in terms of factors which are, in certain respects, biased. To take just three examples from the list shown in Table 1.

It is assumed that it is the change agent's perceptions that are necessarily accurate, and these are contrasted with the 'defensive' perceptions of the indigenous party: yet, when we examine the notion of perceptual defence outside of the psychology-laboratory context in which the defence mechanism has been researched, we find that the notion of a 'defensive' reaction is a construct which the change agent uses, not the indigenous party: an attribution of behavioural causes which may be professionally made, but which is in principle dependent on the perspective, motives, and intentions of the change agent as much as on the motivational state of the indigenous party. To speak of 'error' in the absence of independent data to that effect is an absurd oversimplification.

The personality factors implicated in 'resistance' are described in terms of the negative poles of the traits involved-- 'dogmatism', rather than 'dogmatism / liberalism'; 'dependency' rather than 'dependency / self-sufficiency'; 'low self-esteem' rather than 'low self-esteem / high self-esteem'-- in the absence of any empirical evidence that the client's behaviour is, indeed, predicated on the negative rather than the positive poles of the traits under consideration. The habits which contribute to 'resistance' are presented in terms of inadequate coping, or of an inappropriate attachment to comfort and security, rather than in terms of the deployment of available coping skills and the wish, present in every manager, to be able to forecast outcomes in conditions of uncertainty. Threats to power and influence are, similarly, discussed in terms which place the indigenous party at an automatic disadvantage: one could as easily justify 'resistance' by examining the extent to which the indigenous party feels the changes being advocated would leave him/her with insufficient authority to cope with increased responsibility. And so on, for all but the last three, 'organisational' factors which Hellriegel instances.

At one level, these factors are clearly important in understanding the variables and issues which must be understood if change interventions are to be appropriately designed, and they form an important part of any organisational diagnosis which a putative change agent would wish to conduct. At another, however, they are deeply value-laden and, although in some instances, (as for example in discussing the 'Perceptions' factor), Hellriegel cautions the reader against over-emphasising the importance of the factor (Hellriegel, et al. 1995: 662-663), by and large the examples quoted do not examine the reasons for 'resistance' from the point of view of the indigenous party.

Construing Differences for Effective Knowledge Transfer

It is indeed difficult to give the sheer difference of a different language its due, steeped as one is in one's own mother tongue! However, the constructivist authors such as Kelly (1991) and Rorty (1982), who acknowledge the existence of a 'real' phenomenal flow but insist that its reality is socially negotiated, provide us with the conceptual resources to handle such differences, so that we can move from a simple understanding of knowledge transfer as information transfer, to the more complex version which draws on what I have characterised by the 'new product development' metaphor. Kelly's notion of the personal construct, by which an individual ascribes meanings to phenomena, and his conceptualisation of the *Sociality process*, by which the individual can engage in role relationships with another only to the extent that s/he is successful in understanding and using the *other* person's constructs, while monitoring and understanding the differences in encoding which this reveals with respect to his or her own constructs, are particularly helpful in this regard.

Personal constructs are bipolar; in other words, they encode meaning in terms of an assertion-in-contrast-to an

Table 1 : The Terminology of 'Resistance to Change'

Factor	Examples	Alternative Examples
Perceptions	the perceptual error called perceptual defence	cognitive mechanisms
Personality	dogmatism dependency low self-esteem	liberalism - dogmatism self-sufficiency - dependency low self-esteem - high self-esteem
Habit	coping security	coping skills predictability
Threat to Power & Influence	disempowerment loss of control	unbalanced authority/responsibility levels degree of autonomy
Fear of the Unknown	anxiety/insecurity/fear	anticipated challenges to fundamental values
Economic Reasons	threat to economic security	feelings of justice and equity
Organisational Design	rigidity, hierarchy of authority	organisational structure
Organisational Culture	lack of flexibility; rigid socialisation	functionality of 'old' norms and behaviour given continuation of prior reward structures
Resource Limitations	lack of time, capital, skills	-
Fixed Investments	fixed assets, unmotivated or entrenched senior employees	-
Inter-organisational Agreements	contractual obligations	-

opposite. Kelly was not the first to make this crucial statement. (de Saussure 1983) makes it one of his central assumptions in his seminal analysis of language and meaning. The value of a word is:

> not determined merely by that concept or meaning for which it is a token. It must also be assessed against comparable values, by contrast with other words... not by what it contains but by what exists outside of it. de Saussure (1983:114).

And so, for example, one might express the particular meaning which 'HRD' has for one person in terms of 'HRD, in-contrast-to The Training Function'; for another, 'HRD, in-contrast-to OD'. One might examine the meaning which 'HRM' has for one person by speaking of 'HRM, in-contrast-to personnel administration', and for another person, 'HRM, in-contrast-to 'conventional line management responsibilities'. To talk simply of 'HRD' or 'HRM' is to be nonspecific about the exact meaning intended, and if they need to build shared meanings effectively, each party involved had better establish which contrast the other has in mind.

Much can be taken for granted within a single culture (though even here, the importance of 'understanding the other's position' in any situation of negotiation has always been recognised). Cross-culturally, though, the negotiation between two parties which results in knowledge transfer requires special care, to ensure that for every asserted term, the full construct (term-plus-contrast) is explored and identified– simply because different languages,

in encoding experience within different cultures, often use constructs which involve entirely different contrasts (according to Kelly; or different associations in general, according to de Saussure).

Two Perspectives on the Transfer of Knowledge about HRD to the Post-Command Economies

When we engage in teaching market-economic principles to managers of the post-command economies, our power in the knowledge transfer relationship would appear to stem from our experience in what is arguably a more successful economic system than the one under which the managers whom we seek to influence gained their experience. A wide variety of authors, both western and indigenous, have indicated the reasons for the relative failure of the command economy: an absence of involvement in marketing, distribution, HRM/HRD, financial and strategic management activities at the level of the individual enterprise, together with an underdeveloped knowledge about these practices at any level, corporate or state-institutional (see, for example, Auerbach & Stone, 1991; Kozminski, 1992; 1993; Krysakowska-Budny & Jankowicz 1991; Ullman & Lewis 1996).

In the HRM/HRD field, human resourcing involved the annual negotiation of production targets, together with the maintenance of excess labour capacity to ensure that targets were over-fulfilled when parts and raw materials became available in what was a collapsing supply chain. Production planning systems based on statistically proficient models ignored the social and behavioural aspects of the production process. Since sales, distribution and marketing were not the responsibility of the individual organisation, only the production targets mattered, regardless of the escalating real costs involved; in the absence of competitive pressures, frequent upwards reporting was the only control mechanism available. In consequence, training was largely confined to technical, reporting, and safety procedures. Kozminski (1992) is one of many authors who have described the behavioural consequences observable in the command, and early post-command, organisations.

These are the kinds of behaviour which our efforts at knowledge transfer are designed to influence, and my main point is that our attempts to alter such behaviour, even when they restrict their scope to the knowledge and skills elements and disregard the motivational and values components, are likely to be a failure unless our efforts to negotiate new meanings with indigenous managers give full value to their constructs: to the explicit, and implicit or contrasting, poles involved. Table 2 summarises some of this behaviour and suggests that, coupled with the counter-productive and negative aspects which are obvious to the western observer, there are a number of contrasting positive aspects which western observers frequently ignore when making training interventions, precisely because they do not give the full constructs– the meanings as conveyed by the terms-and-their-opposites– their full value.

Rather than addressing the financial inefficiencies and motivational dysfunction of labour hoarding, for example, we might recognise the level of sophistication and coping skills developed as a result of such practices within the command economy. The kind of concealment which allows an enterprise to report targets comfortably achieved at 100%, or even "norms overfulfilled" at 120% level, using a previously hoarded 20% to 40% excess of labour resource, demands a high degree of negotiating and planning skill– to organise and amass the excess 20% - 40% of labour in the first place, and to mobilise it when the need arises. Not to mention the well-developed communication skills required to massage the figures when the output was, in reality and commonly so according to Kozminski (1992: 153), appreciably short of the figures reported. The clear evidence that such practices led to a lowering of standards and a habituated tolerance of mediocre results (see Kozminski, 1993 with respect to Poland; Buravoy & Lukacs, 1985 in the case of Hungary; and Artemyev & Turner, 1994 in the case of Russia), and the distaste which one might feel for the venality involved, should not detract us from recognising the level of skilled performance required.

While recognising the inadequacies of a purely Taylorist approach to production planning and control, and the motivational consequences with respect to the human resource, it is important to acknowledge the value of technical rationality and the skills involved. In valuing the development of supervisory and management practices which adopt a rational/calculative approach in situations of uncertainty (e.g. Copetas, 1993, Aslund and Layard, 1993, Eberwein and Tholen, 1997), it is also important to recognise the centrality of intuition and subjective judgement, especially in the more strategic management activities at Board level (see, for example, Garratt, 1987; Hisrich & Jankowicz, 1990; Isenberg, 1984; Kelly & Gennard, 1996), and acknowledge the likelihood that these particular intuitive skills were well developed among the managers during the command economy.

Equivalent comments can be made with respect of each item in Table 2; the point being that we are likely to be more effective in the ways in which we negotiate meanings with indigenous managers if we recognise what they are able to do well, as well as what they did badly, and this becomes easier when we predicate such recognition on an underlying skill. Handling the knowledge transfer activity means recognising the ways they construe their own behaviour- as Kelly's Sociality process suggests- collaborative management development then becomes a matter of

working with the skill, which can be positively or negatively, effectively or ineffectively deployed, rather than a matter of eliminating dysfunctional behaviour.

Perhaps the most valuable skill learnt by the manager in the command economy was a very high degree of conceptual sophistication: the realisation that there are many ways to handle an absurd system, coupled with a recognition that personal advancement depends on being able to communicate with colleagues in a network what is really required when their help is sought, even when the official system of the command economy makes it unwise to spell the details out explicitly. Writing during the early, Stalinist period, Milosz (1981) challenges simple-minded, western interpretations of behaviour in the command economy as follows:

> 'Writers of the peoples' democracies make use of an accepted style, terminology, and linguistic ritual. What is important is not what someone said but what he wanted to say, disguising his thought by removing a comma, inserting an 'and'... Unless one has lived there one cannot know how many titanic battles are being fought... a Pole, Czech, or Hungarian practised in the art of dissimulation smiles when he learns that someone in the emigration has called him a traitor... at the very moment when this traitor... is

Table 2 : The Behaviour of the Manager in the Command Economy, together with some Necessary Skills

Explicit Pole : Negative Aspect	Contrasting Pole :Positive Aspect	General Skill
concealing labour and material resources "massaging" production and financial reports	sophistication in annual budget negotiations where virement between headings is tolerated *probably none*	Focused coping skills
flight into inappropriate level of technical detail; neglect of social factors; irrelevant, expensive consultancy reports	decisions informed by technical rationality; efficient standard operating procedures	(Taylorist) Rationality
inaccuracy in situations of uncertainty avoidance of systematic monitoring & evaluation	sensitivity to situational factors drawing on extensive prior expertise and experience ability to justify "the big picture"	Intuitive skills
venality, corruption and bribery: "you scratch my back, I'll scratch yours"	ability to access helpful power-holders, in the knowledge that the relationship is mutually obligatory	Networking skills
illness, esp. psychosomatic inaction due to excess role ambiguity	tolerance, stamina and endurance tolerance of ambiguity	Stress-handling
sophistry and dissimulation, cynical "spin-doctoring"	openness to nuance in verbal and written expression; openness and willingness to reconstrue	Conceptual sophistication

> engaged in a match of philosophical chess on whose outcome the fate of fifteen laboratories or twenty ateliers depends.' Milosz (1981: 78-79).

When communication must be conducted at several levels, *disguising* a thought in order to communicate it more effectively represents a highly sophisticated level of skill: a skill practised very widely indeed, if one accepts the assertions outlined in Czarniawska (1986). The 'struggle for meaning', during which the Solidarity opposition and the state authorities vied to publicise their disparate interpretations of phrases which summarised differing values pertaining to common referent concepts was not simply a characteristic of the organisational culture of the 1980s, when the extent of the systemic change was being negotiated, but typified general culture during the command economy. This skill is likely to remain available, at least among the middle-aged and older management practitioners, in the post-command period. To teach a person like this negotiation skills, for example, by running the 'Prisoner's Dilemma' exercise, (and I have seen it done!), is to invite challenges, based on substantial mathematical/technical knowledge, to the over-simplicity of the payoff matrix on which this exercise depends, while ignoring the availability of substantial expertise in effective negotiation among the participants themselves.

In Conclusion: Bringing some Inferences Home

It should be pointed out that this argument ignores the importance of social norms and personal values in knowledge transfer, and focuses on the admittedly simpler issues which arise when knowledge and skills are being 'transferred'. As Arbnor & Bjerke (1997) have remarked, the problems which arise when we seek to reconcile different viewpoints stem primarily from incompatibilities in personal epistemologies- beliefs about what constitutes worthwhile knowledge and how to recognise when this has been mutually created, rather from contending subject-matter content (knowledge) or how such knowledge is deployed (skills). Nevertheless, if we confine discussion to these simpler matters, perhaps the lessons for our own debates over knowledge transfer and resistance to change, here in the US and UK and across the rather more permeable boundaries which separate us, may be more clearly discerned.

Firstly, the idea that 'transsfer' is a misnomer, and 'mutual creation' based on the negotiation of new understandings is a more accurate description, suggests the importance of involving the trainees, with their existing personal conceptual systems, in designing teaching strategies. If teaching strategy differs from learning strategy in incorporating a model of the transfer process as well as a description of what each party, change agent and learner, must do for learning to occur, then that model should be open to negotiation and mutual development. I am not sure to what extent our existing prescriptions for collaborative learning, in which we seek to develop 'a learning community in the classroom' (Novak 1990), allow for such involvement: at best, the approach and subject-matter to be taught are negotiated, with client involvement, at the initial contracting stage when the course in question is first mooted, but the participants themselves are rarely included in such discussions, nor are the discussions seen as an integral part of the learning process itself. Revan's Action Learning (Revans 1982; 1983), with its role of set facilitator as a co-equal with the members of the learning set, comes nearest to the collaborative involvement I have in mind.

Secondly, the idea that the learner can have very good reasons for engaging in behaviour one might otherwise call 'resistance to change' suggests that what change agents must do is *understand*, rather than 'overcome' it. This understanding can only occur when change agents work from the learner's perspective rather than their own and, to do so, the learner needs opportunities to define his or her own terms in negotiation with the change agent, since the constructs a person typically uses (the assertions-and-contrasts in which his or her meanings are expressed) are rarely self-evident.

It could be argued that much of our western work in organisational training (especially in O.D. in the Beckhard (1967) and Harrison (1970) experiential tradition), does just this. However, interventions of these kinds are characteristic of activities in which a measure of personal development is concerned: in which changes of attitude and values are involved. I am arguing that any learning situation, even when the objectives are confined to relatively simple changes in knowledge, skills and procedures, requires just this sort of analysis if enduring behavioural changes are intended. An alternative way of saying this could be that any intervention in which behavioural changes are to be enduring involves inseparable attitudinal and value components, and that we tend to ignore these: the rich literature on job analysis for training purposes, and on intervention design, rarely addresses the construing of the intended participants themselves, though there are a few exceptions, e.g. Jankowicz (1990); Smith (1980); Stewart & Stewart (1982), to be found.

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The Impact of Human Resource Development on the Winter War Between Finland and the Soviet Union, 1939-1940

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This study examines human resource development (HRD) activities that impacted the performance of the Finnish army in the 1939-40 Winter War with the Soviet Union. The analysis of those activities is based on a model that accounts for the various HRD elements, as well as for outside forces that affected the conduct of the war.

Keywords: Finland, Soviet Union

The Winter War between Finland and the Soviet Union took place nearly a half century ago, yet the valor and ingenuity of the Finns continue to amaze the world. This war had its genesis in the non-aggression pact between Stalin and Hitler in August, 1939, that allocated Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, and Finland to the Soviet sphere of influence. Many attempts were made by the Soviet Union to negotiate the exchange of underdeveloped land in Soviet Karelia for Finnish land that lay a mere 32 kilometres from Leningrad. Unlike the Baltic states, Finland resisted these territorial demands. In frustration, Soviet Foreign Minister Molotov said, "We civilians can't seem to do any more. Now it seems up to the military. It is their turn to speak" (Engle and Paananen, 1973, p. 12). At that time, the German blitzkrieg that had quickly shattered Polish resistance was foremost in the minds of Soviet commissars, who envisaged mounting a similar offensive against Finland. Soviet Commissar Kulik stated sternly to Marshal Voroniv, "You are ordered to base all your estimates on the assumption that the operation will last twelve days" (Voronov, 1963, pp. 136-37). Actually, the Winter War lasted 105 days and featured some of the toughest military campaigns ever waged between a small nation, Finland with a population of less than four million, and the Soviet Union, with a population of 168 million. Similarly, Finland's regular army of almost 30,000, supplemented by trained reserves of nearly 281,000, was vastly outnumbered by a Soviet army of 3 million, supplemented by trained reserves of 16.5 million. When a peace treaty was finally signed on March 13, 1940, the astonishing fact emerged that Finnish losses totalled 25,000 dead and 55,000 wounded, compared with Soviet losses estimated by Finns at "175,000-200,000 dead and 300,000 wounded" (Chew, 1971, p. 212). The reason underlying this discrepancy will become evident later in this paper.

Although the valiant efforts of the undermanned Finnish army has been studied extensively, little attention has been paid to the human resource development (HRD) and organizational ideology efforts that laid the groundwork for Finland's performance in the Winter War. The factors that impacted these efforts are set forth in a model that appears as Figure 1. An important political issue was the Soviet desire, mentioned earlier, for a buffer zone, to be appropriated from Finnish territory, for the defense of Leningrad. Another political issue was the Finnish desire to remain an independent nation, instead of becoming a Soviet state. As for financial issues, the Finns had not allocated sufficient resources for weaponry, because they had not anticipated this challenge to their frontier. The size of the country was an important factor, because it made possible the rapid mobilization and deployment of defense forces.

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Figure 1: Factors effecting on the results of the war.

[1]the definition of HRD is by Gilley & al. 1989
[2]the definition of Organizational Ideology is by King, 1994

The second part of the model shows the elements within the military forces that included HRD, organizational ideology, and resources. Other factors, such as weather conditions and geography, played an important role in planning tactics, strategies, and battles, and therefore the results of the war. The HRD aspect of the Finnish army focused primarily on the pre-service training of enlisted men, non-commissioned officers, and officers. The training of these military forces began in 1919 with Finland's independence from Russia. From 1919 to 1939, every healthy male served in the army. Enlisted men served twelve months, and officers served eighteen months. In addition, reservists in various communities, under the leadership of non-commissioned and reserve officers, could attend 40-60 day refresher courses. In many cases, these officers were better leaders than the regular permanent officers because of their field experience with their local reserve units (Halsti, 1955; Laine, 1987). The strength of the Finnish army reserve units was greatly enhanced by the presence of 2,000 officers who had received their initial, rigorous training at Fieldmeister School near Hamburg, Germany, in their youth. As former members of the 27th Royal Prussian Battalion, they served under General Mannerheim in the 1918 Finnish civil war. In 1939, Field Marshal Mannerheim, appreciating their leadership potential, selected appropriate officers from this group for specific roles. These men became experts at waging guerrilla warfare. Special training to surmount the problems of fighting on difficult terrain became an important on-the-job learning experience. Engle and Paananen (1973) gave this account of the Finnish soldier:

> The Finns had been on skis from the time they had been small children. They had lived with and loved their wild country all their lives. Few had travelled more than a few miles from their birthplaces. As youngsters, they had played the game of "suunnistaminen," or orientation in the forest. School children were given a list of checkpoints within the woods where they were to make contact at a stated time. Hidden behind trees, instructors made sure that the young Finns reached their designated checkpoints. These northerners were experts at finding their way in the vast wilderness; their war tactics were based on the simple question, "Why go into an open field and get shot at, when you can have the protection of the forest?" (p. 84).

The Home guard, a voluntary organization comparable to our state National Guard units, sponsored such peacetime activities as rifle and ski competitions. Chen (1971) reported that "an average of 80,000 to 100,000 members participated in its training programs" (p. 27). However, the overall training of the Finnish army in the 1930s concentrated more on service and maintenance of such border defenses as the Mannerheim Line -- the Finnish equivalent of the French Maginot Line – than on weaponry. Fortunately, individual soldiers were well-prepared to live, fight, and survive under severe winter forest conditions, as their civilian work had been closely related to nature on the farms and in the forests. Often their leisure-time pursuits included hunting and skiing, two activities that taught them skills that served them well in the Winter War. The Finnish troops on the northern front were capable of skiing 20 to 30 miles prior to an engagement with Soviet troops and could withstand temperatures as low as 50 below (Halsti, 1955; Lane, 1987). In analyzing the situation prior to that war, Field Marshal Mannerheim noted:

> To a large extent, our defensive struggle commenced under more favorable conditions than we had dared to expect. The nightmare of the General Staff during the past 20 years had been the problem of how weak our covering troops would be to hold the gate to the Karelian Isthmus until the main forces of the field army had occupied the position....During the period of four to six weeks, we had been enabled to complete the training and equipment of troops to make them familiar with the country, to continue to build fortifications, to prepare work destruction, and to lay mines and mine-fields. The homogeneity of units thus become very different from what is usually the case with hastily mobilized troops immediately thrown into battle. These circumstances were calculated to produce confidence before the trials in front of us (Chen, 1971, p. 26).

The remainder of the training was two-fold. Soldiers were encouraged to use their expertise learned as skiers to make wide circles through the wilderness, attacking the Soviets from the sides and the rear, usually under the cover of darkness, storms, or fog. Their expertise gave to those operations the flexibility so necessary to the conduct of guerrilla warfare.

The other aspect of training was on-the-job expertise designed to teach soldiers how to disable Soviet tank columns. This expertise involved crawling to Soviet tanks with TNT charges or climbing the tanks and using Molotov cocktails. These were bottles filled with kerosene, tar, and gasoline. The Finns hurtled these blazing bottles into the open hatches of the first Soviet tank in a column. The disabled tank brought the Soviet convoy to a halt, enabling the Finns to carry out the second strategy called "motti." Motti involved killing enemy crews as they fled from the disabled tank and also the killing infantry troops following this tank. The Finns then attacked the stalled second tank and continued chopping off segments of the column.

As for career development shown in the model, obviously little such development could occur in a short, 105-day war. However, certain leadership qualities emerged during this defensive guerrilla war, and Finnish soldiers who displayed those qualities were rewarded by promotions.

Concerning organizational development, the Finnish army was blessed by the leadership of Field Marshal Mannerheim, who had had wide experience with the Czar's army. He understood the Soviet mind, and he knew the weakness of the Soviet army following Stalin's purge in 1938 of leading professional officers. As a result, Soviet troops came under the command of Soviet commissars, instead of military men, at the beginning of the war. The weakness of the Soviet army not only emboldened the Finns but had a dramatic effect on their performance in battling the Soviet army. Largely because of weak Soviet leadership, the Finns easily destroyed Soviet forces and equipment and amassed a large amount of Soviet weaponry to supplement their own scanty supply.

Organization ideology was defined by King (1994) as commitment, value congruence, and loyalty. The Finnish soldiers' commitment to battle could be summed up by the word "sisu," meaning tenacity of purpose, intestinal fortitude, or simply "guts." The great Finnish Olympic runner, Paavo Nurmi, said, "Sisu makes men do the impossible...it comes miraculously in times of stress (Strode, 1952, p. 410). Value congruence grew out of Finland's fierce desire to remain independent, not to surrender as had the three Baltic states under the pressure of the Soviet advance. The quality of loyalty was greatly strengthened by Stalin's avowed intention to organize a puppet Finnish state after the presumed Soviet victory. This plan infuriated the Finns and caused the Red Finns and White Finns, who had been foes in the civil war, to unite against the common enemy.

The third element within the military forces was resources. The outbreak of the war found Finnish troops out numbered three to one by Soviets troops, 80 to one by tanks, five to one by guns and mortars, and 50 to one by aircraft. The Finns had expected military assistance from Britain, France, Sweden, and the United States, but it was not forthcoming. However, the Finns salvaged quantities of guns, ammunition, and food from defeated Soviet forces. One Finnish army officer commented that the best equipment and ammunition that the Finns had came from the Soviets. As for human resources, the Finns had an enormous advantage in that the enlisted men and officers

knew each other well, because they had lived, worked, and bonded in the same geographic areas in their civilian days. This experience created an esprit de corps that proved invaluable in battle and a talent for small unit tactics so vital to guerrilla warfare.

Other resources included clothing and food. The Finns, accustomed to frigid temperatures, were sensibly clad in layers of clothing under a white covering that provided an effective camouflage amid the snow. The Soviets, anticipating a brief war, wore lightweight olive brown tunics. For the same reason, the Soviets were poorly supplied with food, a situation exacerbated by fierce Finnish tactics that destroyed Soviet field kitchens and further weakened a demoralized enemy.

Other related factors, as shown in the model, were weather conditions. The winter of 1939-40 was the second coldest in history. As a result, a large amount of Soviet motorized equipment froze, making the stalled vehicles excellent targets for the Finnish ski troops. Geographic conditions, such as dense forests, lack of roads, rugged terrain, and innumerable lakes, combined with weather conditions, enabled the Finns to wipe out two major Soviet units.

Despite the valian: efforts of the Finns and, in particular, their single-battle victories, they had to sue for peace when Stalin, embarrassed by Soviet defeats, appointed a regular general to command hundreds of thousands of Soviet troops against the exhausted Finns. Thus ended a noble period in Finnish history.

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Designing Effective Training Program for International Transfer

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In an effort to examine the effect of training design on the transfer of HRD training for a global company, a training project for a Korean organization was studied. Applying a conceptual model of international transfer of training, ten case studies were conducted. Data analysis results revealed several reasons of high or low learning and transfer of training. Training design issues for effective transfer were discussed.

Keywords: Training Design, International, Training Transfer

In the age of turbulence and pressures of continuing change, today's organizations are facing severe competition from around the world. In this global environment, organizations are encountering globalization of its employees as well as the business itself.. This trend impacts employee training and development to cope with the global needs of employee performance. The change toward a more global orientation for employee training necessitates the need to understand the nature of learning and training transfer between organizations and countries. Despite the critical influence of transfer on the success of a business, many training initiatives of multinational organizations fail to meet the cultural and organizational needs of recipient organizations in multicultural settings (Lim & Wentling, 1998). Designing a global training program that accommodates the cultural and organizational needs becomes a critical task for HRD professionals in today's organizations.

Several theoretical and practical reasons initiated the need for the study. First, numerous empirical transfer of training studies have been conducted in recent years (Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Ford & Weissbein, 1997), but seldom in cross-cultural settings. Moreover, current theories and models of transfer of training were also considered inappropriate to study the nature of learning and transfer of training in cross-cultural environment (Lim & Wentling, 1998). Considering the impact of globalization on training, the need to set up a model for the cross-cultural transfer of training is growing more than ever. Through the model, the factors in training design, organization, and cultural differences affecting the transfer of training can be examined and verified in cross-cultural environment. From a practical point of view, HRD practitioners in multinational companies need guidelines to better understand the transfer of training within a global context. The findings of this kind of study will help program designers within multinational companies develop overseas training programs that better meet organizational and individual needs and are culturally appropriate.

Questions for Investigation

The purpose of this study was to examine the degree of learning and training transfer made by HRD professionals of SK Group in Korea and to identify what factors in training design affect the learning and transfer of training. Following research questions were developed to investigate the purpose of the study:

1. To what extent do trainees perceive their learning has resulted from training?
2. To what extent do trainees perceive their learning has transferred to their jobs?
3. What are the reasons of high or low perceived learning and training transfer?
4. What factors in training design affect trainee's learning and transfer of training to the job?

Theoretical Framework

In order to investigate the transfer of training across international settings, a theoretical framework for training transfer was developed. This framework was derived from an extensive literature review on training transfer, which resulted in a model of international training transfer and the identification of critical training design variables that may influence transfer.

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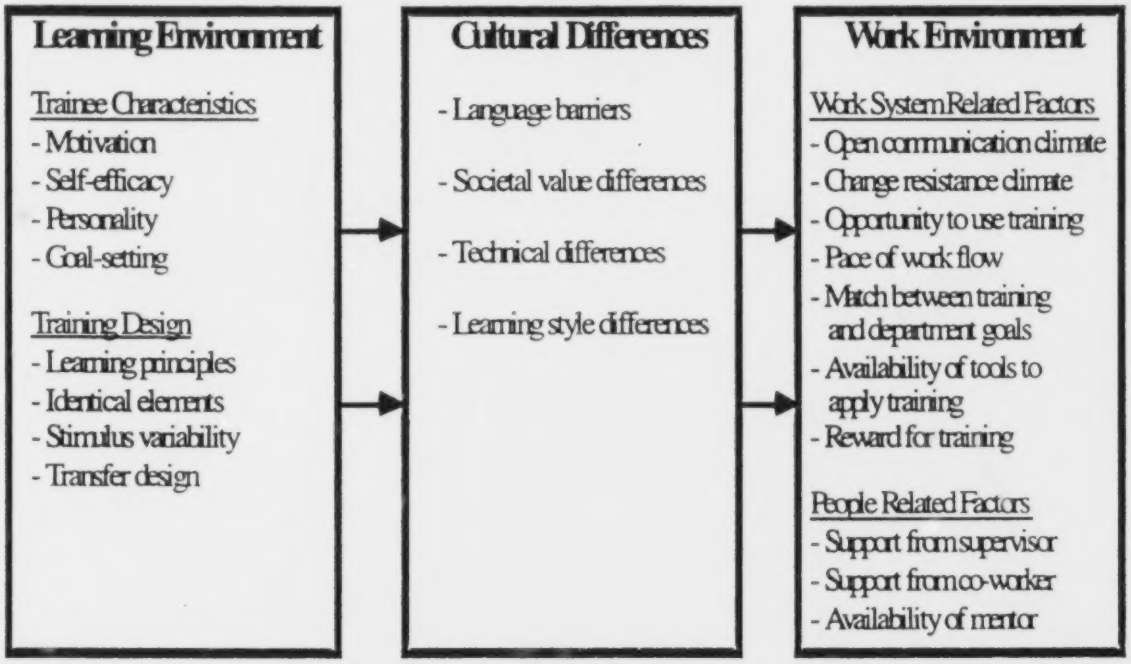
A Model of International Transfer of Training

Several researchers have developed theoretical frameworks to investigate the transfer of training domestically and internationally. Based on a careful review of several models of training transfer and international training transfer (Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Geilen, 1996; Huczynski & Lewis, 1980; Lim & Wentling, 1998), common characteristics for a model of international transfer were identified (see Figure 1). First, a model of international training transfer must encompass three primary domains: learning environment, cultural environment, and work environment. Second, the three domains of the model include several sub-elements or variables that can affect transfer of training. Third, the three domains and sub-elements interact with each other by shaping a specific pattern of influence on the transfer process. Fourth, the model of training transfer describes a systematic process that has direct or indirect relationships between the elements of each domain.

Figure 1. A model of international transfer of training.



Among the three domains of the Model of International Transfer of Training, the effect of training design on transfer of training has been studied by numerous researchers because it is believed to be one of the most important constructs impacting training transfer (Brinkerhoff & Gill, 1992). The training design variables can be categorized into two domains: instructional design and instructional method.

For instructional design, Baldwin and Ford (1988) describe three instructional design issues that impact training transfer: identical elements, stimulus variability, and teaching of general principles. According to them, transfer of training is maximized; 1) when there are identical stimulus and response elements in the training and transfer settings; 2) when a variety of relevant training stimuli are employed in the training content; and 3) when trainees are taught the general rules and theoretical principles that underlie the training content.

Many researchers have studied the effect of various types of instructional methods on training transfer. Overlearning, a process of learning far beyond the required level of performance, supports retention of training (Hagman & Rose, 1983). Post-training interventions such as goal setting (Wexley & Nemeroff, 1975) has been shown to increase the motivation of trainees to transfer learned skills to the job. Garavalia (1993) suggests several instructional methods for effective training transfer: (a) use of many different examples in various contexts, (b) use of analogies, (c) use of computer simulation, and (d) use of advance organizers. As an effective way to increase transfer of training, Foxon (1997) advocates the action planning method for training. Finally, tutoring and coaching

are considered powerful tools to polish new behaviors and skills acquired in the training (Huczynski, 1989).

In this study, the researcher applied the framework of the Model of International Transfer of Training to verify the degree of learning, transfer, and reasons of high or low transfer in global context. Among the three domains, this study examined the construct in training design.

Methodology

To explore the transfer of training, a recent training project for a Korean organization, SK Group, was studied. SK Group is one of the largest conglomerates in Korea; ranked as the fifth largest in Korea in terms of sale revenue in 1997. Fifteen companies in various product lines comprise the conglomerate.

In the study, ten individual case studies were planned and conducted. Case study design for data collection and analysis was used because each trainee was expected to have a different pattern of training transfer. The subjects for the study included ten HRD practitioners of SK Group in Korea who attended an HRD training program offered by the Department of Human Resource Education at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign. The ten trainees came from four companies of SK Group and their job titles included HRD specialists, assistant manager, and manager.

A questionnaire was developed to obtain the trainees' perceived degree of learning and training transfer. The questionnaire included question items composed of the seventy training objectives extracted from the instructors' lesson plans that were used during the instruction. The question items used a four point Likert-type scale to measure the degree of the learning and transfer. A structured interview guide was developed to investigate the reasons for high or low learning and transfer and to collect examples of successful transfer. To evaluate the content and construct validity of the instruments, a pilot test was conducted.

Interviews, questionnaires, observations, and document review were utilized to obtain data for this study. Each trainee was asked to participate in two interviews for data collection. The reason for using the two-tiered interview process was because the trainees were expected to refresh their learning from the first interviews and provide more in depth information during the second interviews. The questionnaire was used during the first interview to determine each trainee's degree of learning and training transfer for each of the 70 training objectives. Responses from the questionnaire were used during the second interview to guide questions asking for reasons to explain the high or low learning and training transfer for each training objective. Data collection began six months after the training program ended. The researcher conducted all individual interviews with each subject in Korea.

Two methods were used for data analysis: basic descriptive statistics and qualitative analysis. The units of analysis for the descriptive case studies were: (1) the trainees' perceived degree of learning, (2) their perceived degree of training transfer, and (3) the reasons why learning and the later transfer of their learning to their jobs did or did not occur. The degree of learning and training transfer was first analyzed using basic descriptive statistics. The reasons for high or low perceived learning and training transfer for each training objective were explored and categorized. Document review and observations were conducted to collect data regarding incidents and examples made by the trainees on the job.

The Training Program

SK Training Center, the centralized training center for all employees of SK Group, implemented various overseas training programs to develop the HRD professionals from each company within SK Group. The Performance Improvement Technology Training Program was designed by the University of Illinois to provide SK HRD practitioners with knowledge and skills in the area of computer technologies for training. The training program was conducted for three weeks in August, 1997. The general objectives of the training program were to identify and describe technologies that enhance learning, develop quality instructional materials and evaluate them, and effectively use a variety of technologies for instruction and administrative purposes.

Instructional emphasis in the course was placed on recent developments that involve the use of the Internet and its application in education and training. Instructional technologies such as computer-based instruction, computer-based testing, distance learning, and intelligent instructional technologies were included in the curriculum. Instructional methods used for the training program were lecture, reading, discussion, projects, benchmarking field trips, and computer skill practice. A total of 70 specific learning objectives were developed for the course.

Findings

Degree of Learning

In order to identify what was learned or not learned during the course, the trainees were asked to rate their degree of learning for each of the 70 learning objectives in the course. As a group, the ten trainees indicated a fairly high perceived degree of learning. The population mean score for the perceived degree of learning was 2.0 on a 4 point scale (scale range was 0 to 3), which indicates "mostly understood" in the rating scale of the questionnaire. Further analysis was conducted to examine the degree of perceived learning within different goals of the course.. The course learning objectives were categorized into four domains: learning principles and theories (18 objectives), conceptual understanding of performance improvement technologies (30 objectives), specific knowledge to master skills for distance learning technologies (11 objectives), and skills for using distance learning technologies (11 objectives). Table 1 shows the average perceived degree of learning for each category. As shown in Table 1, the trainees perceived greater learning for objectives that addressed skill development and conceptual understanding. Slightly lower learning was perceived for objectives that addressed theories and skill oriented knowledge.

Table 1
Average Perceived Learning Based on Training Objectives

Learning Objective Domains	Number of Objectives	Mean	SD
Learning principles and theories	18	1.90	.66
Conceptual understanding of performance improvement technologies	30	2.06	.70
Specific knowledge to master skills for distance learning technologies	11	1.86	.82
Skills for distance learning technologies	11	2.14	.71
Total	70	2.00	.72

Analysis was also conducted to examine the extent to which the trainees felt that certain objectives promoted either a high or low degree of learning. Sixty-three of the 70 objectives were rated above the midpoint on the 4 point scale (>1.5) while 7 of the objectives were rated below the scale midpoint. On the 4 point scale, 0 indicates "didn't learn" while 4 indicates "completely learn." During the second interviews the trainees were asked to provide reasons why certain objectives had resulted in either a high or low degree of learning. Table 2 contains a list of the factors that contributed to their learning.

Transfer of Learning

An analysis of the degree of transfer was conducted through interviews with the trainees and by reviewing documented evidence of transfer. The trainees seemed to have many chances to transfer what they had learned through the training to their jobs and tasks. The average of the ten trainees' perceived degree of training transfer for the 70 learning objectives was 1.61, which indicates a moderate degree of perceived transfer. The group's perceived degree of transfer was somewhat lower than their perceived degree of learning. Table 3 shows the average perceived degree of transfer for the four categories of learning objectives. It is interesting to note that the trainees felt that they had the greatest transfer of objectives that addressed learning theories and conceptual understanding of performance improvement technologies. This seems counter to the general notion that specific skills are most likely to transfer.

Table 2
Most Common Reasons for High or Low Perceived Learning

Reasons for High Degree of Learning	f [a]	% [b]
• Highly related to their job	143	21.9
• Previous understanding or knowledge	141	21.6
• Quality of examples and demonstrations	77	11.8
• Opportunity to apply on the job	65	9.9
Reasons for Low Degree of Learning	f [a]	% [b]
• Forgetting due to the time lapse	76	44.4
• Lack of interest in the topic	54	31.6
• Lack of understanding during the training	30	17.6

Note. [a] indicates the number of times this reason was provided for each of the objectives that the trainee indicated had resulted in either a high or low degree of learning. [b] percentage of responses based on 63 high learning objectives and 7 low learning objectives.

Table 3
Average Perceived Transfer Based on Training Objectives

Learning Objective Domains	Number of Objectives	Mean	SD
Learning principles and theories	18	1.71	.89
Conceptual understanding of performance improvement technologies	30	1.67	.95
Specific knowledge to master skills for distance learning technologies	11	1.37	1.01
Skills for distance learning technologies	11	1.52	1.08
Total	70	1.61	.97

Evidence of the transfer of training was found during the first interviews. Five trainees said that began using some of the performance improvement technologies presented during the training when they returned to their jobs. Seven trainees indicated that they intended to apply what they learned from the training to their future jobs and tasks.

Although the trainees felt that transfer of learning had occurred, it was not always an easy transfer. Five trainees said that some of the conceptual objectives from the training were difficult for them to transfer while six

trainees said that some of the skills they had learned during the training were hard to transfer. During the second interviews, the trainees were asked to provide reasons why some of the objectives transferred while others did not. Table 4 provides a summary of the most common reasons why transfer did or did not occur. The primary reasons for high perceived degree of transfer was (1) the opportunity to use their learning on their job (77%), (2) needed for personal use (14%), and (3) used what was learned to persuade others (5%). The trainees provided numerous examples to explain the opportunities they had to use what was learned on their jobs. These examples included (1) for planning and discussion purposes (28%), for program development (14%), for information system design (13%), and for instruction (11%). The most common reasons for low transfer included (1) the lack of opportunity to apply the learning on the job (64%), (2) no direct relationship of the learning with their job (15%), and (3) lack of understanding of the content (9%).

Table 4
Reasons for High or Low Perceived Transfer

Reasons for High Transfer	*f* [a]	% [b]
• Opportunity to use on the job	325	77.4
• Used for personal use	60	14.29
• Used to persuade others	20	4.76
Reasons Low Transfer	***f*** [a]	**%** [b]
• Lack of opportunity to apply on the job	270	64.3
• Not directly related to my job	63	15.0
• Lack of understanding of the content	39	9.3

Note. [a] indicates the number of times this reason was provided for each of the objectives that the trainee indicated had resulted in either a high or low degree of transfer. [b] percentage of responses based on 39 high learning objectives and 31 low learning objectives.

Training Design

In this research study several characteristics of the design of the training program affected the trainees' learning and transfer of training directly or indirectly. From the trainees' comments about the training design, the inhibiting and promoting factors of training design on the learning and training transfer were identified. The number in parenthesis is frequency of response from the trainees. The inhibiting training design factors identified were: inappropriate benchmarking field trips (4), lack of sufficient time to preview the training content (2), lack of thorough needs assessment for each trainee (1), insufficient practice and exercise session (1), mismatch between the practice session and the learning content (1), inappropriate grouping of trainees for workshop activities (1), lack of clarification of technical terminology (1), and insufficient lab hours for computer use (1). The promoting training design factors identified were: instructor's mental and emotional involvement in the instruction (3), instructor's demonstration of teaching principles through the instruction (2), demonstration of specific examples (2), self directed daily wrap up meeting (2), instructor's sensitiveness to cultural differences of the trainees (1), step by step instruction moving from basic to advanced learning content (1), skill practice session (1), teaming up of work group with mixed specialties (1), pre-distribution of reading materials (1), participatory learning method (1), and use of audio and visual material during instruction (1)

Even though it was not specifically indicated at the above list of training design factors, the role of training coordinator was indicated as an important factor for the success of the training. Coordination was especially required, not only for translating the instruction during class, but for guiding the trainees with appropriate suggestions during the daily wrap up meeting regarding the application of their learning to jobs and tasks. To do

this, the coordinator needed to understand the trainees' jobs and work environment.

The self-directed wrap up meeting seemed to help the trainees in several ways. First, it provided the trainees an opportunity to reflect daily learning and relate the learning to jobs and tasks. Second, several trainees mentioned that the daily wrap up meetings helped them clarify some of the confusing concepts of performance improvement technology. Third, the wrap up meetings also helped novice trainees in computer technology understand basic technical concepts and network terminology. Whenever a trainee raised a technical question to the whole group during the meeting, one of the computer specialists answered the question.

Discussion

Several themes emerged from the data analysis of perceived learning and transfer and the examination of actual examples of transfer. These themes and their resultant implications are organized around degree of learning, training transfer, and training design.

Degree of Learning

The ten trainees who participated in the performance improvement technologies training program showed different perceived degrees of learning and training transfer from the data analysis. In general, all ten trainees showed a high perceived degree of learning. From the responses of all ten trainees, one pattern of learning were found. Even though the perceived degree of learning for all trainees was satisfactory, the training objectives in the conceptual domain seemed to be relatively more difficult to learn than skill-related training objectives. Among the seven training objectives that showed low perceived degree of learning, only one was related to skill-related objectives while the other six objectives were conceptual.

There were numerous reasons for low or high perceived learning, but one distinct category was found to influence the learning to a great degree. It was the category of reasons related to job application of the training that accounted for most of the reasons for low perceived learning (i.e., forgetting due to lack of opportunity to use on the job) and for high perceived learning (i.e., highly related to my job and opportunity to apply on the job). From this finding, it seems that job related reasons had the strongest influence on learning. Other major reasons for low or high perceived learning were also found to influence the trainees' learning. Those reasons could be classified into two categories. The first category included the personal reasons for using what was learned such as lack of interest or previous understanding of the training content. The second category included training design aspects that account for high perceived learning such as examples and demonstration, practice opportunities, class projects, and daily wrap up meetings.

Transfer of Learning

The trainees seemed to have many chances to transfer the training objectives to their jobs and tasks, but they showed different perceived degrees of transfer among them. In general, transfer of training showed a relatively lower perceived degree than that of learning. It is indicated, however, that job related reasons had the greatest influence on training transfer. Of the reasons for low perceived transfer, job related reasons such as lack of opportunity to apply on the job or information that is not directly related to their job had the most influence on transfer. Of the reasons for high perceived transfer, job related reasons such as opportunity use on the job has the most influence.

In contrast to learning, conceptual related training objectives were perceived to be more highly transferred by the trainees than specific knowledge or skill related objectives. The training objectives covering "learning principles and theories" and "conceptual understanding of performance improvement technologies" were perceived as highly transferred objectives. Training objectives covering "specific knowledge to master skills for distance learning technologies" and "skills for distance learning technologies" were perceived to be less well transferred. The reasons for this could be based on the job characteristics of the trainees. As indicated from the reasons for high perceived transfer of training, the trainees were more engaged in tasks that required mental or conceptual activities than did in skill related tasks.

Training Design

From previous research studies, several training design variables were found to influence the transfer of

training such as identical elements between the learning and job setting, stimulus variability in instruction, teaching of general principles (Baldwin & Ford, 1988), and overlearning (Hagman & Rose, 1983). The findings of this study also showed similar evidence with these research studies. First, the training content was said to be mostly identical with the trainees job requirements except one technical difference in language conversion for a software program. Second, use of various instructional methods, such as examples and demonstration, practice session, and project completion, seemed to promote better learning during the training. Third, overlearning seemed to promote the retention of trainees' learning after the training. Many trainees seemed to remember the learning principles, which were emphasized several times by one instructor, six months after the training.

From the data analysis, 9 out of 10 trainees indicated that they had a project to complete after the training. One of the trainees even mentioned that the training program was successful because most of the trainees were assigned some types of projects to complete after the training. From this, the transfer variables such as motivation and goal-setting might be drawn not only from personal characteristics but also affect learning and training transfer as the training design factors.

Conclusion

Not all learning from any trainning program can be expected to be transferred or applied to jobs and tasks for the trainees. This is especially true for the case of international transfer of training. To assure the maximum transfer of a training program several considerations must be made prior to and during the training program. First, to make a good training design that accommodates the cross cultural training needs, thorough training needs assessment at the individual participant level seeems important to ensure the success of training transfer as well as the quality of training. Good training needs assessment always improves the quality of a training design as well as delivery of the training. Second, the use of diverse instructional methods is considered an important strategy for training design that leads to successful training transfer. By providing learning experiences in different ways, the trainees can master the training content conceptually and experientially. Diverse learning stimuli also helps retention of the learning to a great degree. Third, in the case of delivering training programs for foreign students, the instructor's sensitivity to the cultural differences that students may experience during the instruction is an important factor for successful training. The course coordinator also plays a critical role in guiding the students' learning and application of the learning back to the jobs and tasks.

Several research implications surface from this study. First, it appeared that trainee personality variables influenced the learning and training transfer, but were not explored in this study. Including the variables of trainee characteristics in future research designs will enhance breadth of future studies. Second, this study focused on the transfer of training in international settings. Comparing the differences found in the transfer of training between domestic and international settings is an interesting topic in need of study. Third, studying the transfer of training in different training delivery environments, such as using distance education technologies, will be another way to study the transfer of training between countries.

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Cross Cultural Effectiveness: A Case Study of Cultural Conflict Incidents

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Rapid expansion of global business has challenged HRD to meet the needs of transnational leaders and global knowledge workers. The broad problem addressed by this study concerns the cross-cultural effectiveness of American expatriates living in the United Kingdom. It was concluded that the differences in cultural assumptions between the US and UK are greater than expected, and that provision of skill training in cross-cultural conflict resolution, cross-cultural communications, and coping resources for stress could address deficits identified by this study.

Keywords: Cross Cultural Effectiveness, Cross Cultural Conflict Resolution, Global Leadership Development

After they surveyed existing literature and current practice, Black, Mendenhall, & Oddou, (1991) referred to the literature on cross-cultural training for business purposes as "pre-paradigm" and recommended use of ethnographic research to expand the knowledge base. The research strategy for this study was case study. The purpose was to describe cross-cultural conflict incidents and to illuminate factors that may be affecting cross-cultural effectiveness.

Research Problem

International experience is fast becoming a career development prerequisite for executive management positions (Brewster, 1991). The need for effective use of knowledge and experience across borders accompanies the expansion of global business. Recent trends include the changing characteristics of potential expatriates. For example, the percentage of dual-career couples, who may be negatively impacted by an international assignment, is increasing steadily. It is estimated that dual career families will account for 63% of married couples in the US by 2000 (Employee Relocation Council, 1987). Expatriate female employees constitute a relatively small segment, estimated to range from 3-7% percent, at present. However, this group is viewed as the beginning of a new trend (Adler, 1994). Expatriates from third countries, who are neither host nationals or headquarters employees, are being used in a small but growing number of companies with a strategic approach to global managerial and organizational development. Additional trends in relation to expatriate turnover and attrition are emerging. A typical expatriate in the 1990s is expected to fulfill one or two international assignments (Brewster, 1991). This reality contrasts with the previous practice of using a cadre of career expatriates who were moved from country to country over a lifetime of employment. Attrition rates after an international assignment range as high as 40% within the first 2 years of reentry. Consequently, global HRD expertise is needed to retain employees who have gained valuable experience on international assignments. Clearly, the organizational benefits of global leadership development systems and international networks are becoming more apparent.

Research Questions.

The broad questions, which guided this study, included the following: How can HRD assist expatriates and accompanying family members in developing intercultural effectiveness? What can be learned about how to lessen culture shock and cross-cultural adjustment? How do skill and knowledge deficits influence cross-cultural conflict incidents and intercultural effectiveness? The multiple factors contributing to successful cross-cultural transition and effectiveness have not been clearly identified in previous literature. The focus questions that guided this study were as follows:

1. How do violated expectations play a role in culture conflict incidents between American expatriates and UK host nationals? (Burgoon, 1983)
2. How do expatriates exhibit cross-cultural skills, or lack thereof, in the resolution of cross-cultural conflict incidents? (Ferraro, 1990)

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3. What can be learned about the implications for social skills training from US-UK conflict incidents? (Furnham & Bochner, 1986)
4. What can be learned about the implications of cross-cultural stress and coping resources for stress in relation to resolving cultural conflict incidents? (Matheny, Curlette, Aycock, Pugh, & Taylor, 1987).

Research Design

The research strategy was case study. Descriptive data about their experiences were collected from 16 American expatriates in London, using structured interviews that encouraged story telling. Triangulation interviews were conducted with 10 British host nationals. Each semi-structured interview consisted of questions regarding cross-cultural conflict situations and how they were resolved. The subjects constituted a group purposefully selected as the unit of analysis. The present study represents a single case (a single unit of analysis) but the interviewing proceeded to saturation, that is, until conflict patterns were often repeated in the interviews. The unit of analysis provided a unique research opportunity. As the researcher, I was a US expatriate who lived and worked in the UK for six years. This provided an unusual mode of entry to interviews with expatriates (US citizens living in the UK) and with host nationals (British citizens working with Americans). The criteria for inclusion resulted in a group of new expatriates who were able to provide data rich with fresh impressions. In addition, I was able to include participants who are representative of future trends in expatriation: dual career expatriate couples, female expatriates, and male accompanying partners.

Preliminary Study

The researcher designed, developed, and presented a 3-day program entitled In-Country Cross-Cultural Transition Skills Training. The design phase included: 50 needs assessment interviews in the US, Belgium, England, and Germany; a review of cross-cultural training programs and of models useful for designing cross-cultural training; a review of the literature on cross-cultural training content and effectiveness; and a review of assessment instruments useful for cross-cultural training. The training was designed to meet the needs of expatriates and spouses during an international assignment. It was conducted on a pilot project basis in the United Kingdom in 1993. Because of the success of the pilot program, the researcher subsequently conducted the program on 12 other occasions in 3 other countries (Brussels, Belgium; Frankfurt, Germany; and Washington, DC) between 1993 and 1996. Since 1994, the In-Country Skills Program has been conducted in shorter versions (one-half to two days) in a number of different organizations. The 3-day skills program includes the following: Module 1: Culture, cultural assumptions, culture shock & adjustment; Module 2: Cross-cultural adaptability, managing transitions; Module 3: Cross-cultural clash, cross-cultural problem solving skills; Module 4: Cross-cultural communication skills and negotiating skills; Module 5: Cross-cultural stress and coping resources for stress.

Procedure. Qualitative analysis of the interviews employed pattern matching strategies to identify differences in cultural assumptions and their influence on cross-cultural conflict incidents and to identify how coping resources for stress may influence coping responses in US-UK conflict situations. Reviews by peers and British host nationals were used to validate and modify interpretations that emerged from the pattern analysis of the interview data. The following expected patterns were identified:

Expected Pattern 1. Cross-cultural conflict incidents between US expatriates and UK host nationals will include expectancy-violations. Expectancy-violation theory (Burgoon, 1983) focused on how violations of expectations about another person's behavior lead to positive or negative evaluations of that person. Expectancy violation theory is particularly applicable to cross-cultural conflict interactions.

Expected Pattern 2. Cultural distance will be a factor in the US-UK cross-cultural conflict incidents. Cultural distance is a theoretical perspective which posits that the more dissimilar a new culture is from one's home culture, the more difficult the adjustment will be during expatriation (Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985). This perspective is based on the assumption that if an expatriate is unable to identify or perform appropriate behaviors, adjustment will be more difficult. This pattern expectation was not intended to imply that the degree of cultural distance would be as great in American-British interactions as it would be, for example, in American-Chinese interactions. Instead, the cultural distance theory was expected to serve as a distraction from accurate expectations and anticipatory preparation, which is similar to the reentry transition expatriates experience upon return to their home culture (Black et al., 1991; Weaver, 1993)

Expected Pattern 3. The use of cross-cultural skills will have a positive impact on the resolution of cross-cultural conflict incidents. The pattern analysis will use Ferraro's (1990) taxonomy of cross-cultural skills, which includes: tolerating ambiguity, being flexible, having patience, displaying empathy, being resourceful, personalizing observations, showing respect, being non-judgmental, and having a sense of humor.

Expected Pattern 4. The use of coping resources for stress, as defined by the Coping Resources Inventory for Stress (Matheny, et al., 1987), will have a positive impact on the resolution of cross-cultural conflict incidents. The management of cross-cultural stress has been identified as a dimension of cross-cultural adaptation. Development of cross-cultural coping resources for stress may provide valuable tools for expatriates in cross-cultural conflict situations.

Analysis. Merriam (1988) stated, "qualitative researchers are interested in how people make sense of their lives, what they experience, how they interpret these experiences, how they structure their social world" (p. 19). Following the recommendation of Goetz and LeCompte (1984) the researcher organized the case data base and read all of the data several times. During multiple readings, the investigator made notes, comments and questions in the margins of the transcripts. This stage is vital because the initial notations allow the investigator to note the most striking information. This begins the process of organizing, abstracting, integrating and synthesizing that will lead to the researcher being able to communicate what has been observed.

The notes were then developed into an outline or system of classification into which the data was sorted. This outline aided the investigator in finding regularities and patterns. The patterns were then made into categories into which the subsequent items were sorted. The patterns or categories emerged from the data. Lincoln and Guba (1985) recommend using, "*units of information* that will, sooner or later, serve as the basis for defining categories" (p. 344). *Culture Clash Incident,* the unit of information chosen by the researcher, met the criteria for selection delineated by Lincoln and Guba (1985). A *Culture Clash Incident* was defined as an incident or scenario that is an example of cross-cultural differences or cross-cultural conflict between persons from different cultures. A culture clash incident often occurs as a result of perceived unmet expectations that are a result of differing cultural assumptions.

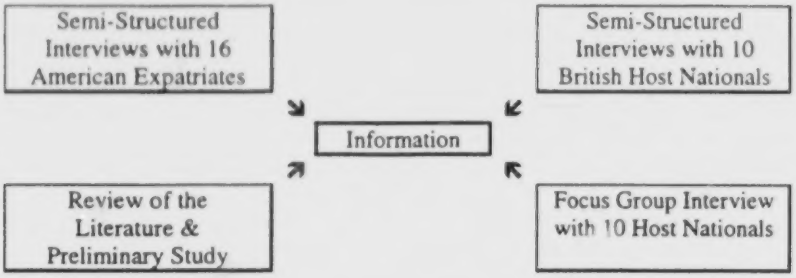
After the unit of information was identified, each interview transcript was read an additional six to eight times and a running log of culture clash incidents was created. The resulting Culture Clash Log that includes a total of 78 clash incidents was developed. Each conflict incident was then categorized in relation to broad cultural assumption continua. On the first pattern sorting, the researcher used classic anthropological continua from the seminal work, in 1961, of Florence Kluckhohn & Fred Strodtbeck: (1) *Man-nature orientation*, (2) *Time orientation*, (3) *Activity orientation*, (4) *Relational orientation*, and (5) *Nature of man orientation*.

In the first sorting, a number of culture clash incidents did not match the broad categories used by Kluckhohn & Strodbeck. This led to consideration of other possible explanations for the emerging patterns. Two more continua from research by an American anthropologist, E. T. Hall, matched the data from the pattern analysis and were added. These were *Sense of Space*, or *Proxemics*, and *High and Low context* in communication styles (Hall, 1976). Cultural Theory by a British social anthropologist, Mary Douglas, provided the frame of reference for two additional categories which emerged from the data: *Power and empowerment*, and *Social Relationships* (as cited in Kim & Ofori-Dankwa, 1995). Research by Noesjirwan (as cited in Furnham & Bockner, 1986) provided the structure for the category of *Social Interaction Values and Behaviors*. A final category that is unique to this study was defined as a continuum for *Trust and Safety Concerns*.

Validity and Reliability. Yin (1994) recommended three principles of data collection to maximize the benefits of using case study as a research strategy. Each of these principles has been incorporated into the design and implementation of this case study. The first, multiple sources of evidence, is presented in Figure 1. According to Yin (1994):

> [T]he most important advantage presented by using multiple sources of evidence is the development of converging lines of inquiry, a process of triangulation .... [A]ny finding or conclusion in a case study is likely to be much more convincing and accurate if it is based on several different sources of information, following a corroboratory mode. (p. 92)

Figure 1. Convergence of Multiple Sources of Evidence in a Single Case Study


Semi-Structured Interviews with 16 American Expatriates
Semi-Structured Interviews with 10 British Host Nationals
Information
Review of the Literature & Preliminary Study
Focus Group Interview with 10 Host Nationals

Since multiple sources of evidence essentially provide multiple measures of the same phenomenon, triangulation results and with it the potential problems of construct validity can be addressed. This study has employed: (a) multiple data sources (data triangulation); (b) multiple evaluators (investigator triangulation); and (c) application of multiple theories to the same data set (theory triangulation). The second quality principle recommended by Yin (1994) is to create a case study data base. This allows the data base to be the subject of a separate secondary and independent analysis of the case report by the original investigator. The data base for this study includes the following: (1) American expatriate interviews: Sixteen audio tapes (averaging one hour in length), hard-copy transcriptions of the interviews, and computer disk files of the transcriptions. (2) British national interviews: Written summaries of 10 British interviews compiled immediately after the interviews from field notes taken during the interviews. (3) British national focus group: (a) a summary of the written responses from 10 London university students to questions regarding the Coping Resources Inventory for Stress (CRIS); (b) a typed transcript of a focus group discussion held to solicit feedback regarding the cross-cultural interpretation of individualized reports on coping resources for stress. The third quality principle is to maintain a chain of evidence that allows an external observer to follow the derivation of any evidence from the initial research questions to the case study conclusions for increased reliability. This was accomplished by making use of citations to the relevant portions of the case study database, by ensuring that the database included actual evidence, and by ensuring a clear link between the content of the protocol and the initial study question (Yin, 1994).

Results and Findings

Qualitative analysis of the expatriate interviews employed pattern matching strategies to identify 78 cross-cultural conflict incidents which were grouped into 10 primary categories and 25 subcategories of US - UK cultural assumption differences. The validity of these categories was then subjected to peer analysis, US and UK participant review. The same strategy was used to match 30 British triangulation cultural conflict incidents to the ten primary categories. Methods used to accomplish interpersonal conflict resolution were then compared to a taxonomy of cross-cultural skills (Ferraro, 1990) and coping resources for stress (Matheny, et al., 1987). Table 1 (see Table 1) presents a model of the US and UK cultural assumptions evident in this case study. The culture conflict incidents were matched with accepted cultural orientation continua from the literature review. The values, beliefs and behaviors that emerged from the pattern analysis matched positions on the continua presented.

Conclusion 1.

Expectancy-violations played a major role in the cultural conflict incidents described by the participants. The quantity and quality of information gathered regarding US and UK cultural assumption differences exceeded expectations. When asked to describe a situation involving cross-cultural differences or cross-cultural conflict, the 16 participants provided descriptions of 78 cross-cultural conflict incidents. The vast majority had expectancy-violations as a central feature. The majority of expectancy-violations occurred during conflict incidents that took place between American expatriates and British providers of customer services or goods. The following pattern sequence was seen repeatedly. When an American expatriate described a problem situation to a British service provider, he or she expected to engage the service provider in a problem-solving effort until the issue was resolved. However, in most cases the British service provider was either not prepared or not empowered to participate in problem resolution with the customer. When the expatriate complaint was met with indifference, or inflexibility, or

referred to a higher level, the conflict between the sender and receiver either escalated or was left unresolved in the majority of culture clash incidents.

Conclusion 2.

The Cultural Distance theoretical perspective, in its entirety, was not supported by this study. US expatriates in the UK repeatedly experienced difficulties in identifying and performing culturally appropriate behaviors. Adjustment was therefore more difficult than expected. In addition, because difficulties were not anticipated (and culture distance was assumed to be minimal) the negative impact on the expatriate's adjustment was greater than anticipated. Recent work by Brewster (1994) on British and Swedish managers provides a foundation for what may develop into a rival theory to the Cultural Distance theory. Brewster (1994) summarized a 1971 study by Franko that empirically challenged cultural distance by showing that the US had the most failures in joint ventures with Canada and Ireland. In addition, Brewster reviewed studies of United States and Swedish interactions that have experienced problems despite having similarly developed cultures.

Table 1. US-UK Cultural Orientation Continua

US-UK Cultural Orientation Continua			
Orientation	**Basic Values, Beliefs & Behaviors**		
1. Social Interaction	Formal & Reserved	^ v	Informal & Extroverted
2. Sense of Time	Past Oriented	^ v	Future Oriented
3. Work Roles & Empowerment	Hierarchy Authoritarian	^ v	Flat Structures Democratic
4. Social Relationships	Ascribed Status	^ v	Achieved Status
5. Context	High Context	^ v	Low Context
6. Action Orientation	Being	^ v	Doing
7. Sense of Space	Internal Space	^ v	External Space
8. Relationship between Society & Individual	Group Oriented	^ v	Individualistic
9. Safety Needs Met; Trust Relationships	High Comfort Level and Trust	^ v	Low Comfort Level & Distrust
10. Control Over Nature & Ability to Change	Life is Unchangeable	^ v	Life is Changeable

Language difficulty is usually listed as the most significant barrier to cross-cultural communications during an international assignment. For example, it is easy to understand why a successful corporate executive expatriate might tend to isolate within the American or English speaking sub-culture. One of the strengths of this study was the common language of English. The researcher was able to analyze the cultural assumptions underlying the US and UK conflicts and to explore the subtle differences in cultural codes, rules, and context.

Conclusion 3. In the majority of cultural conflict incidents, cross-cultural skills were noticeably absent. In particular, lack of culture-specific knowledge about UK cultural assumptions was evident. In addition, there was a lack of self-awareness, on the part of the American expatriates, of their own cultural assumptions and personal value systems. The pattern analysis began with the use of Ferraro's (1990) taxonomy of cross-cultural skills. Although

concepts such as "having patience" are readily understood, these proved too broad for the analysis (i.e., these descriptions were not operationally defined to the extent needed to distinguish between the more effective resolution of conflicts and the less effective attempts.) A description of more specific or observable cross-cultural skills was needed to analyze the detail contained in the interview transcripts. Therefore, the Culture-Learning Social Skills Model was used and the expected pattern was restated to include specific cross-cultural skill or knowledge deficits and the resulting impact on cross-cultural conflict incidents.

The Social Skills Model considers learning the "salient characteristics of the new culture" to be the major task of the expatriate. In this approach, learning the behaviors of a new culture is not conceptualized as an adjustment process with ethnocentric overtones. Instead, it is an expedient process in which the expatriate adopts new behaviors on a temporary basis (Furnham & Bochner, 1986, p. 235). For example, a Briton living in Tokyo would quickly learn to abandon his or her habit of queuing for a subway or train. Specific, operational definitions of skill deficits are possible with this model. In the majority of the conflict incidents analyzed there was a lack of knowledge or a lack of cross-cultural skills on the part of the expatriate or the host national, or both. When a cross-cultural conflict was resolved or later understood, the acquisition of additional culture specific information, culture general knowledge, or cross-cultural skills was apparent in each of the explanations given by the expatriate.

Conclusion 4. The concepts underlying the Coping Resources Inventory for Stress (CRIS) scales provide a structure for the expatriate to evaluate cross-cultural clash situations from a different perspective and to make alterations or accommodations. In several conflict resolution descriptions the participants described the use of *cognitive restructuring*, in that they attempted to place a problem in a different perspective or to view a situation from the perspective of host national. This process is referred to in the cross-cultural literature as using empathy, isomorphic attribution, or an ethno-relative perspective (Bennett, 1993; Lewis, 1996; & Triandis, 1990). *Confidence*, another concept addressed by the CRIS, is described as "faith in one's ability to cope successfully with stressful life situations" (Curlette, Aycock, Matheny, Pugh, & Taylor, 1987). Persons, who score high on the confidence scale, believe in their ability and usually expect to succeed. Mendenhall and Oddou (1985) found that one of the primary individual factors relating to in-country adjustment was a *self-oriented skill* which was defined as the ability to believe in oneself and one's ability to deal effectively with the foreign surroundings, even in the face of great uncertainty. This *self-oriented skill* was found to be quite similar to what Bandura (1982) referred to as *self-efficacy*. In an international assignment, self-efficacy, or confidence, drives the person to persist in trying new behaviors which, in turn, facilitates adjustment. When asked, "Who was the hero, heroine, or positive force in the story?", a number of participants answered, "I was, because I persevered."

Limitations of the study. This study has focused on cross-cultural conflicts between two relatively similar cultures, the US and the UK. It has used a purposefully selected unit of analysis to examine critical theoretical propositions. While insights have emerged that may be helpful in other cross-cultural situations, no statistical generalization of the findings to other situations is implied.

The aim of this research design has been toward analytic generalization or Level Two Inferences. According to Yin (1994), this level of generalization is appropriate for a quality case study. Yin argued that researchers should use tactics throughout the design and implementation of a case study to apply the four tests commonly used to establish the quality of empirical social research: construct validity, internal validity, external validity, and reliability. These tactics were employed.

Implications for HRD and Summary

Because cultural distance is assumed to be minimal, expectancy violations are not anticipated and cross-cultural skill and knowledge deficits seem unlikely, cross-cultural skill training for US-UK interactions is rarely provided. Most of the interview participants were surprised by the degree of cultural difference experienced and few demonstrated the knowledge or the cross-cultural skill repertoire needed to manage cross-cultural conflict situations effectively. Several implications emerged from this study which warrant further research. They are presented as myths for the purpose of encouraging new questions about the pre-paradigm state, which currently exists in the area of cross-cultural preparation and effectiveness for business related expatriates.

Myth 1. When moving from one culture to another, it is less likely that an expatriate will experience culture shock or a period of cross-cultural adjustment if the two cultures are similar. This study suggests that it is more useful to examine cross-cultural adjustment in relation to expectancy violation rather than the degree of cultural distance or culture novelty . These findings match those of re-entry studies in which repatriates describe unexpected culture shock upon re-entry to their home culture. The pattern analysis revealed skill and knowledge deficits in 10 specific cultural assumption categories and 25 sub-categories. Perhaps subtle cultural differences that

are slowly discovered over time have as great an impact as obvious cultural differences that are quickly recognized. One of the interview participants used the phrase "it was as if we were speaking different languages;" another said, "I'm always standing on one foot -- never able to get my balance," to describe the impact of cultural differences between the US and the UK, two seemingly similar cultures. Adherence to the construct of cultural distance could be limiting research on the subtle interpersonal learning, which is a component of cross-cultural effectiveness.

Myth 2. Provision of pre-departure training is adequate preparation and support for the development of cross-cultural transition and cross-cultural effectiveness skills. This study challenges the belief that a pre-departure program is adequate for cross-cultural skill development and skill transfer. Pre-departure training is usually composed of (a) an introduction to culture-general information, and (b) country-specific briefing information. Provision of accurate pre-departure information is critical. However, if the information is inaccurate, or incomplete, it may encourage stereotyping and a false sense of cross-cultural expertise. In this study a number of conflicts centered on subtle cultural differences such as social class and regional variations within the United Kingdom. The timing for a deeper understanding of cross-cultural negotiation or conflict resolution skills, for example, is after the expatriate has had enough time in-country to discover and appreciate the impact of culture.

Myth 3. A taxonomy of Cross-cultural skills (Ferraro, 1990) provides a description of the skills needed for effective cross-cultural interactions. Ferraro's taxonomy provides a foundation description of desirable behaviors, skills and attitudes for a discussion of intercultural effectiveness. However, it does not reach the level of specific skill analysis that takes interpersonal and situational factors into account. Models using Culture Learning and Social Skills theory have attempted to reach the level of analysis required to determine cross-cultural skill-knowledge deficits in specific interactions. To propose taxonomies, which include broad culture-general skills and personal attributes, confuses the issues involved in training for cross-cultural effectiveness. The HRD focus is more appropriately placed on analysis of skill and knowledge deficits within cross-cultural interactions.

Myth 4. If expatriates have adequate skills in problem solving and conflict resolution in their native culture, those skills will be appropriate and transferable to other cultures. It is probable that a number of problem solving skills are transferable from the US to the UK cultures. However, this study revealed that some conflict resolution skills, which had been used successfully in the US, proved to be less appropriate for use in the UK. In the conflict incidents described, the skills that proved to be less successful in resolving conflict situations, included assertiveness skills, (or *self-directedness* on the CRIS scales), mutual problem-solving based on power equity, and *self-disclosure*. The 10 Britons at the University of London who took the CRIS and participated in a feedback session provided information on a number of subtle differences between the US and UK cultures. For example, when an American Expatriate uses *self-disclosure* as a coping resource for stress, the intention may be to build a relationship capable of providing social support. Such an action, however, may be interpreted by a British host national as an invasion of privacy and might be met by a negative response. In addition, Britons may be less likely to use "American assertiveness," which may be viewed as aggressive.

The data in the cross-cultural conflict incidents in this study also raised questions in relation to span of control for the expatriate and the host national. When external stress demands, such as the distribution of resources, are central to a conflict, the demands may be beyond the span of control of the participants in the cross-cultural conflict interaction. When a mutually agreed upon resolution was attempted after a cross-cultural conflict incident, the following were evident: (a) an awareness of external and internal stress demands, (b) an awareness of power equity issues, (c) cross-cultural skills in problem solving and conflict resolution, and (d) skills in coping resources for stress.

Summary

The purpose of this study was to describe cross-cultural conflict situations and to illuminate factors that may be affecting cross-cultural transition and cross-cultural effectiveness. This descriptive case study has added to the body of knowledge regarding intercultural effectiveness with the ultimate aim of improving Human Resource Development services for individuals and organizations in the expanding global arena.

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